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ABSTRACT

These five papers describe the educational system of the German Democratic Republic (GDR). An introduction by Derek Marsh overviews the climate for and aims of education in the GDR. "A Brief Introduction to the GDR" (Jean Finlayson) summarizes the economic background, standard of living, role of women, politics, religion, sports and culture, health care, and education. "Educational System of the GDR" (D. Marsh, J. Finlayson) discusses management and administration, preschool education, 10-year general polytechnical secondary schools, polytechnical education, post-16 provisions, the vocational guidance system and its organization, and apprentice training. "The Training of Teachers in the GDR" (Patrick Rooke) presents an historical background, describes training for different teachers, and reviews training at pedagogic universities and inservice training. "The Administration of Higher Education in the GDR" (Keith Ebbutt) gives a descriptive account of the administration of higher education, both nationally and institutionally. An attempt is made to show how power is distributed within this system. "Two Ideologies: The Politics of Vocational Training" (D. Marsh) draws broad comparisons between education and training in the GDR and the Federal Republic of Germany. Considerations include the roles of the federal government and the states, chambers of industry and commerce, and trade unions. A diagram of the GDR educational and training systems and a glossary are appended. (YLB)

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1983

Vocational education and training in the German Democratic Republic

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Foreword & Acknowledgements

Most of the material in this report was gathered on visits which were part of the bilateral programme of cultural, educational and scientific exchanges between Britain and the German Democratic Republic. Pat Rooke, Derek Marsh and Jean Finlayson visited educational institutions in the GDR in 1981 and took part in a return visit to Britain by a GDR education delegation in 1982.

These visits were organised by the British Council and the GDR Ministry of Education to whom we are greatly indebted for making it possible for us to see a wide variety of education and training activities in the GDR.

We are grateful too for the help of our GDR colleagues whose papers, delivered at symposia held at the University of Erfurt and Bulmershe College of Higher Education, Berkshire, provided much useful material from which we have drawn for the paper on the GDR education system. They are Professor Albrecht Herrmann, Dr Werner Kohler, Dr Hans Wegerich, Mr Klaus Jaritz and Dr Siegfried Bar.

Keith Ebbutt's study of higher education in the GDR was the result of visits to a number of HE institutions at the invitation of the Institute for Research into Higher Education at the Humboldt University in Berlin.

Because this report is part of a series of comparative papers and because the Further Education Staff College has developed considerable expertise in vocational education and training in the Federal Republic of Germany, we thought it appropriate to compare the GDR system with that of the FRG. We believe this comparison helps to set the GDR system into a context which will be familiar to readers of this series. Derek Marsh has taken part in information gathering visits to the FRG as well as to the GDR.

Introduction

DEREK MARSH
STAFF TUTOR, FURTHER EDUCATION STAFF COLLEGE

The post-1945 economic development of the GDR has been impressive; revival is due in no small way to the educational system. Social ownership of the means of production, it is claimed, produces an attitude, encouraged by educational and social policies, whereby people are consciously, systematically, and non-competitively creating the material conditions which enable the standard of living to rise.

Socialist education is centred on education to work. The educational system is linked to the general economic and labour market planning of the economic system and designed to meet current and expected future labour requirements of the economy of a society which sees production as the key source of wealth. The GDR uses its educational system to achieve the qualitative transformation which the forces of production are undergoing. The values of the working class prevail; education is concerned with socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism, and the main political party (the SED, Socialist Unity Party) intends to lead all pupils, without exception, to the planned objectives via political, ideological, moral, and social training.

The end product is seen as a good, skilled worker, able to play a conscious, intelligent and active role as a citizen in the socialist state. Hence, the education system is an integrated whole with no dead-ends. It seeks to produce motivated and disciplined workers with a high level of technological education broadly based on vocational training which enables them to adapt to the changing demands of modern production processes. In other words, they possess non-process-specific abilities. All topics in teaching, therefore, are related to their practical applications in society, whether they be concerned with literature, sociology, mathematics or natural sciences.

At the same time, the system strives to enable a balance to be maintained between the required uniformity and conformity, and individual differentiation (hence the special schools for highly gifted children).

To help to achieve these aims, education is strongly supported by the meaningful leisure activities provided by the Pioneer Movement and the Free German Youth (FDJ), by parent-teacher and class associations, by thorough vocational guidance and by the avowed

commonality of interests of the people - workers, farmers and intelligentsia, the political parties, and the trade union movement.

Future development will be to stablise the system, improve the curriculum, and raise quality and efficiency. Any future changes in the educational system will, however, only stem from developments of a society seeking to meet the needs of technological changes. Above all, it must maintain equally high standards across the GDR together with equal opportunities for vocational training for everyone.

I : A brief introduction to the German Democratic Republic

JEAN FINLAYSON
PUBLICATIONS EDITOR, FURTHER EDUCATION STAFF COLLEGE

At the end of World War II the victors divided Germany into four zones. What had been Central and East Germany became the Soviet zone in the four-part control of post-war Germany.

Each sector began to be developed separately with strong independent states - such as Bavaria in the west and Thuringia in the east - but the British and American sectors were soon combined and the French sector later merged with them to become what is now the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG). The Soviet zone became the German Democratic Republic in October 1949, but was not given general diplomatic recognition until December 1972 when it signed the Basic Relations Treaty with the FRG. Both states became members of the United Nations in 1973.

In the post-war division East Germany lost its two major ports - Hamburg to FRG and Stettin to Poland. It also lost the Silesian coal, zinc and lead deposits which went to Poland. The GDR was left with few natural resources and now has to import approximately half of all its raw materials. The GDR ranks first in the world output of lignite. It also produces rare metals such as uranium, cobalt, bismuth, arsenic and antimony. Lignite accounted for 60 per cent of the total amount of primary energy needed in 1980.

Fuel supply is a continuing problem and the country plans to supply 50 per cent of its fuel needs with nuclear energy by the year 2000. The proportion of electricity produced from nuclear fuel increased from 3.2 per cent to 12 per cent from 1975 to 1980.

The GDR shares borders with the FRG, Poland and Czechoslovakia. Its area is 300 miles from north to south, 200 miles from east to west (less than half the size of the United Kingdom). Just over half the area is agricultural and a quarter is forest. Only three cities (East Berlin, Leipzig and Dresden) have populations of more than 500,000.

Although the GDR lost some of its most important industrial areas, many of the highly trained workers from those areas moved in order to live in Germany. (Stettin and Silesia are examples of areas where this happened.) The pre-war German traditions of training were important in the GDR's post-war recovery. The GDR is one of the world's smaller countries in both size and population (17 million), but it now ranks among the top 10 industrial nations and

its industrial output ranks third in CMEA (Council for Mutual Economic Assistance) countries. Emphasis is on metallurgy, chemicals, heavy machinery, textiles, plastics and electronics.

National income rose by 25.4 per cent in the five-year period between 1975 and 1980. Manufacturing output grew by 32.2 per cent in the same period. Table 1 below shows the State budget of the German Democratic Republic in comparison with that of the Federal Republic of Germany (population 55 million) for the years 1976-79. The figures are in DM 1 million.

Table 1

	1976	1977	1978	1979
GDR revenue	117,588	124,543	132,612	140,633
GDR expenditure	117,128	124,103	132,103	140,223
FRG revenue	136,027	149,755	163,152	177,515
FRG expenditure	162,514	171,952	189,508	203,358

(Source: The Statesman's Year-book: 1982-83)

In 1980, 32 per cent of total expenditure in the GDR was earmarked for health and social services, education and culture.

Industry produced 62 per cent of the GDR national income in 1980 (as compared with 47 per cent in the FRG). Nationally owned and co-operative enterprises were responsible for 96.4 per cent of the net product. The percentage of privately owned enterprises decreased from 32.8 per cent in 1950 to 2.4 per cent in 1978.

STANDARD OF LIVING

An indication of the increase in ownership of consumer durables is shown in Table 2 (on page 7).

Housing is still one of the most urgent problems faced by the GDR. The Government's goal is to solve this problem by 1990 which will mean that a further 2.8 - 3 million homes must be built or modernised. The period 1976-80 saw an increase of 134 per cent in the construction and modernisation of dwellings as compared with the previous five-year period: 609,666 in 1971-75; 813,127 in 1976-80. (Source: GDR Facts and Figures. April 1981.)

Some houses are privately owned, but most new blocks of flats are owned by housing co-operatives which encourage residents to participate in the development of their own environment. Working people who wish to improve their housing conditions with their own work and money are helped to do so by the state. In the period 1981-85 the share of dwellings to be completed for workers' housing co-operatives will make up 42-45 per cent of all industrialised housing construction. New owner-occupied homes in rural areas will make up 20 per cent of new dwellings.

Table 2

Percentage of households owning:	1970	1980
A refrigerator	56%	99%
A television set	69%	90%
A car	16%	37%
A washing machine	54%	83%

Source: GDR Today: 1981

The GDR is behind most western countries in technological development and is now investing heavily in micro-electronics and robot technology in order to keep up internationally. It plans to double its output of micro-electronics components by 1985. In a country with 100 jobs for every 94 people, micro-technology is not looked upon as a job-killer but as a welcome boost to productivity. The GDR target, set in 1980, for increasing industrial production is five to five and one-half per cent annually.

ROLE OF WOMEN

The Constitution of the German Democratic Republic guarantees everyone the right to work. Women make up half the nation's workforce; 87.6 per cent of all eligible women and girls go out to work or are preparing for a job. Genuine equality of opportunity appears to have been achieved. For example:

Every second judge is a woman;

Every second elected representative is a woman;

Every fifth school is run by a woman;

Every second university graduate is a woman;

Every second management post in the trade sector is held by a woman;

Every third leading position in higher and vocational education is held by a women;

Every second candidate for a skilled worker's certificate is a woman.

POLITICS

When the Russians took control of their zone, they assisted German communists (many of whom had survived in exile) to set up a socialist administration. Industry was then nationalised. Large farms were taken over by the state, broken into smaller units and handed over to peasants. All land which belonged to Nazi sympathisers was appropriated without compensation.

The Communist Party (KPD) and the Social Democratic Party (SPD) were united into the Socialist Unity Party (SED) which has governed the GDR since 1949.

One of the major moves in the GDR since its formation has been that of positive discrimination for people of working class origin. This is clearly apparent in the educational system.

RELIGION

Denominational schools were abolished in 1945 and religion no longer features in school timetables. Religious instruction is left to the churches.

The part of Europe which is now the GDR has long had strong connections with Luther and the Protestant religion is still strong there. In 1964 there were just over 10 million Protestants and 1.3 million Catholics. The Government gives grants for maintenance of religious premises and for religious charities. These include hospitals, day-care centres, rural health stations and homes for the handicapped. There are departments of Protestant theology in six state universities.

SPORT AND CULTURE

The GDR has made an international mark with its achievements in sport. The country's sports men and women won 239 world and European championship titles between 1976 and 1980.

Sports are well organised in schools and nation-wide youth tournaments serve as talent spotting events. Outstanding performers are selected for coaching at special sports schools, but

these are but the top of a pyramid with a very wide base. Sports facilities are very good and provide year-round training for most sports.

Cultural facilities are also excellent and widely available. There are about 150 theatres and permanent playhouses where about 1600 productions are shown every year. The price of theatre tickets has not increased in the past 10 years. The two leading theatres are the national theatre in Weimar and the **Staatsoper** in Berlin, both of which have been completely restored since 1945.

Music is a strong feature of cultural life. The GDR has a lively opera, many orchestras, choirs and good solo performers. Students of exceptional musical talent are identified early and attend special schools.

GDR citizens buy, on average, nine books per year - and borrow another six from public libraries. Book prices have remained stable for the past decade. The country has 39 daily newspapers with a total circulation of 7.1 million.

HEALTH CARE

Medical care in the GDR is free of all charges. The country's network of health and social facilities was considerably expanded and improved during the period 1976-80. There is now, on average, one doctor for every 500 people in the GDR (as compared with one doctor for every 2000 in Great Britain). (Source: Statesman's Year-Book 1982-83.)

The GDR birthrate fell in the 1950s and the state introduced a number of measures designed to increase it. These included improved social benefits for young married couples and 26 weeks' maternity leave on full pay. Table 3 below shows the steady increase in birth rate per 1000 population:

Table 3

1975	10.8
1976	11.6
1977	13.3
1978	13.9
1979	14.
1980	14.6

Source: Statesman's Yearbook: 1982-83

The infant mortality rate (which can be taken as a general index of health care since it is affected by so many conditions) has declined from 1.5 per 100 live births in 1975 to 1.2 in 1980. Table 4, below, shows that this rate compares favourably with the most advanced countries.

Table 4

INFANT MORTALITY RATES
per thousand live births

Japan	7.5	1980
France	10.	1980
Great Britain	12.	1980
German Democratic Republic	12.1	1980
United States of America	13.8	1978
Federal Republic of Germany	15.	1979

Source: Stateman's Year-book 1982-83

EDUCATION

Education, which is described in detail in section II, (page 11) is free, co-educational and compulsory from the age of six.

Sixth form pupils receive a monthly allowance of 110-150 marks (about £27.50 - £30). Since September 1981 all students have received the same basic grant irrespective of their parents' income. They may also receive performance-linked supplements to the basic grant.

Until 1st September 1981 apprentices received an average of 160 marks per month (£40) out of which those who lived in apprentice hostels paid 30 marks (£7.50) per month for accommodation and full board. (About 25 per cent of apprentices live in hostels specially provided for them.) Since September 1981 apprentices' pay has gone up on a graduated scale by 20-33 per cent.

Appendix A (page 42) gives an outline of the education and training systems of the GDR.

II : Educational system of the German Democratic Republic

DEREK MARSH, STAFF TUTOR, and
JEAN FINLAYSON, PUBLICATIONS EDITOR,
FURTHER EDUCATION STAFF COLLEGE

MANAGEMENT AND ADMINISTRATION

Institutions of education in the GDR are established, administered and controlled by the state. The supreme representative body (People's Chamber) and the Council of Ministers decide upon the fundamental tasks for the development of education. The ministries responsible are the Ministry of Education, the State Secretariat of Vocational Training, the Ministry of Higher and Technical Education and other specialised ministries.

Each educational institution is run by a state appointed manager (director). These managers are advised by counselling bodies such as the Teachers' Councils at general secondary polytechnical schools or Academic Councils at universities. A school director (in smaller schools they are called head teachers) is the head of the educational and technical staff and is fully responsible for the running of the school.

The Ministry of Education oversees **Kindergärten**, general secondary polytechnical schools, evening classes, special schools and homes for the handicapped, teacher training institutes and kindergarten-teacher training schools. Creches come under the Ministry of Health, institutions of vocational training under the State Secretariat of Vocational Training, and the universities and most institutions of higher and technical education under the Ministry of Higher and Technical Education (see Section IV, page 27).

PRE-SCHOOL EDUCATION

Attendance is optional at pre-school education - creches and kindergarten. Creches look after the children of women who are at work, on full time training course, or students. Women with two or more children have the legal right to one-year of paid leave after the birth of their second child and their jobs are kept open for them. They may send their children to a creche after their year off. First-born children may attend a creche from the end of their mother's maternity leave up to their fourth birthday.

As 88 per cent of women in the GDR are in employment, pre-school provision is widely used. In 1979, 60 per cent of children ages 1-3 attend a creche. Because of a rising birth rate the demand for creches is not fully met at present, but the capacity is being steadily increased.

Creches are open from 6.00 a.m. to 6.00 p.m. They are the responsibility of the Ministry of Health. They care for the health of children, get them accustomed to order, regularity and independence according to the children's age and help them acquire fundamental habits of hygiene

After their third birthday children go to kindergarten which are the responsibility of the Ministry of Education. These too are open from 6.00 a.m. to 6.00 p.m. They are staffed by assistants for the whole period and by teachers from 7.30 a.m. to 4.00 p.m.

There are sufficient places for all children whose parents wish them to attend a kindergarten. In 1980, 93 per cent of children did so. Kindergarten provide play and learning, artistic and physical activities geared for specific age groups - an all-round preparation for school.

The costs of both creches and kindergarten come from the state budget. Parents pay only a small charge for meals.

Combined day-care centres which provide both creche and kindergarten facilities have become increasingly popular since the early 1970s. Brothers and sisters of different ages can attend together and have an un-interrupted pre-school education.

TEN-YEAR GENERAL POLYTECHNICAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Compulsory schooling begins at age six when all children enter the ten-year general polytechnical secondary school (POS - **Polytechnische Oberschule**) where they remain until the age of 16. Table 1 (page 13) shows the subjects studied and the number of hours devoted to each in the 10 years of polytechnical schooling. These, like all GDR schools, are co-educational. The timetable is binding throughout the country and the curriculum is uniform. Textbooks and teaching aids are also uniform throughout the GDR.

The ten-year school is subdivided into the lower level (grades 1-3), the intermediate level (grades 4-6) and the upper level (grades 7-10). At the lower level pupils acquire the skills of reading, writing and mathematics. Instruction is linked with socially useful work, beginning with gardening and manual training in grades 1-3.

Table 1

TIMETABLE FOR THE TEN-YEAR GENERAL POLYTECHNICAL SCHOOL (6-16)

Subject - Form	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
German	10	12	14	14	7	6	5	5	3	4
Russian	-	-	-	-	6	5	3	3	3	3
Mathematics	5	6	6	6	6	6	6	4	5	4
Physics	-	-	-	-	-	3	2	2	3	3
Astronomy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Chemistry	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	4	2	2
Biology	-	-	-	-	2	2	1	2	2	2
Geography	-	-	-	-	2	2	2	2	1	2
Manual training	1	1	1	2	2	2	-	-	-	-
Gardening	1	1	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Polytechnical instruction	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	4	5	5
Forms 7-10, inclusive Introduction to Socialist Production	-	-	-	-	-	-	(1)	(1)	(2)	(2)
Technical drawing	-	-	-	-	-	-	(1)	(1)	(-)	(-)
Productive work	-	-	-	-	-	-	(2)	(2)	(3)	(3)
History	-	-	-	-	1	2	2	2	2	2
Civics	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	1	2
Drawing	1	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	-
Music	1	1	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Sport	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	2	2
Total hours per week	21	24	27	29	31	33	32	33	31	33
Optional Needlework	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-
Second foreign language	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	3	3	2
Total hours per week	21	24	27	30	32	33	35	36	34	35

Source: Ministry of Education 1981

Lessons in natural science, arts and a foreign language (Russian) start at intermediate level. Pupils begin to acquire scientific and technical knowledge and skills through the subjects of mathematics, physics, biology and in manual training. Vocational orientation begins in grades 4-6.

The upper level marks the completion of ten-year secondary education and lays the groundwork for vocational choice and post-school education.

POLYTECHNICAL EDUCATION

Polytechnical education represents the guiding principal of all instruction in the 10-year school. Its aim is to make pupils familiar from an early age with the foundations of the production process. Polytechnical instruction is specifically provided in the subjects of introduction to socialist production, technical drawing and productive work, but its concept underlines teaching in all subjects. The structure of this part of the curriculum is shown in Table 2 (page 15).

Two fundamental principles lie behind polytechnical education. The first is that there must be complete unity between theory and practice, with no distinction between education and training. Secondly, there must be 'social education'. Every citizen is guaranteed the right to work, but rights also carry duties and in this case, it is the duty of every GDR citizen to acquire a skill. The economic significance of that skill and its role in a socialist society must be understood. Work experience is concerned with learning how socialist enterprises operate as much as with helping the transition from school to work.

All children are taught during the first six grades how to use simple, basic tools and how to work with wood and metal. Real work experience begins at age 13, by which time all children are familiar with simple craft skills. From grade 7 onwards, 10.6 per cent of the curriculum is devoted to polytechnical instruction. This consists of periods in alternating weeks of theoretical instruction in school and production-line experience at training centres (**Polytechnische Zentren**) in local industrial premises.

The items which the children make are either sold to the public or used in a manufacturing process. Each school must complete its annual quote of manufactured goods. This quota is set by the factory in negotiation between the production manager and the school head and is related to the age of the pupils. Pupils do productive work for a continuous half-day period once a fortnight under the supervision of school staff and a **Lehrmeister** (a teacher-trained skilled foreman). The student/staff ratio is usually about 15 to 2.

Table 2

STRUCTURAL PATTERN OF POLYTECHNICAL EDUCATION

Polytechnical instruction in forms 1 to 12

School year	Hours per week				
	1	2	3	4	5
12	Scientific and practical work				
11					
10	Introduction to socialist production		Productive work		
9					
8	Technical drawing				
7					
6	Manual Training				
5					
4	Gardening				
3					
2					
1					

Source: Ministry of Education 1981

Each pupil is given a task sheet which contains details of the final product, the job instruction, components list, tool list, job sequence and the quality requirement of the finished product.

All pupils keep a log book of their work experience. In it tasks are detailed, the amount of work produced is noted, and marks are awarded for the quality of work and attitude shown. Comments by both teacher and lehrmeister go into this book which is examined by school staff at the end of each session.

Each class in the **Zentrum** is divided into three groups. Each groups has a pupil leader and other pupils are allocated special tasks such as quality control or health and safety leader. Prizes are awarded to teams and individuals who achieve the best production levels.

Most training centres take pupils from a number of schools so there is a continuous flow of pupils each week. There is no differentiation whatsoever between boys and girls. It is not uncommon to see girls, wearing hard hats, laying bricks and carrying cement on a construction site.

There is close co-operation between school, work centre and factory. This is achieved with a number of local support groups. The manager of the Zentrum has monthly meetings with representatives of trade unions, the FDJ, the factory education committee, parents and teachers. A policy committee of teachers and trainers meets four times a year to discuss ways in which subject teachers can best relate theory to practical work elements.

The kind of work experience practised by the 10-year schools is costly. Facilities, accommodation, materials, tools and instructional staff cost roughly 200 DM (£50) per pupil per year. Some factories can offset part of the cost by sales or use of articles produced and work experience in the upper grades obviously provides a ready source of recruitment for the workforce.

Polytechnical education in the German Democratic Republic serves two main purposes. Firstly, it helps children acquire skills, attitudes and knowledge to prepare them for the world of work and to develop concepts of painstaking work, order, discipline and the value of working with others according to socialist principles. Secondly, it prepares children for an easy transition from school to training and work. By the time they complete their 10-years of polytechnical education, they will know what jobs are available and will have had a wide variety of first-hand experiences to help them make a wise career choice. Polytechnical education provides an integrated, systematic programme which works smoothly and efficiently and ensures that there is no incompatibility between 'school' and 'real life'.

POST-16 PROVISION

About 90 per cent of young people transfer at 16 to a two-year vocational school (**Berufsschule**). A further eight per cent transfer to extended secondary school (EOS - **Erweiterte Oberschule**) which leads directly to higher education via the **Abitur** (roughly equivalent to 'A' level). About two-three per cent transfer to a three-year, part time vocational school (**Arbeiter mit Teilausbildung**) where they can study for the Abitur along with technical and engineering studies.

The **Abitur** course is by selection. Parents apply to a selection commission composed of the school headmaster and representative of teachers, parents and FDJ who select on the basis of grades achieved throughout school, attitudes, behaviour and social origin (50 per cent of students in higher education must be children of workers or farmers).

Teachers in the various levels of schools are trained for the specific level at which they will teach (see the paper on teacher training, page 23).

Students can also qualify for university studies by attending evening classes, a technical or engineering school, or pass a special examination after attending specialised courses. Universities and colleges offer both full time and part time courses which prepare students for higher education.

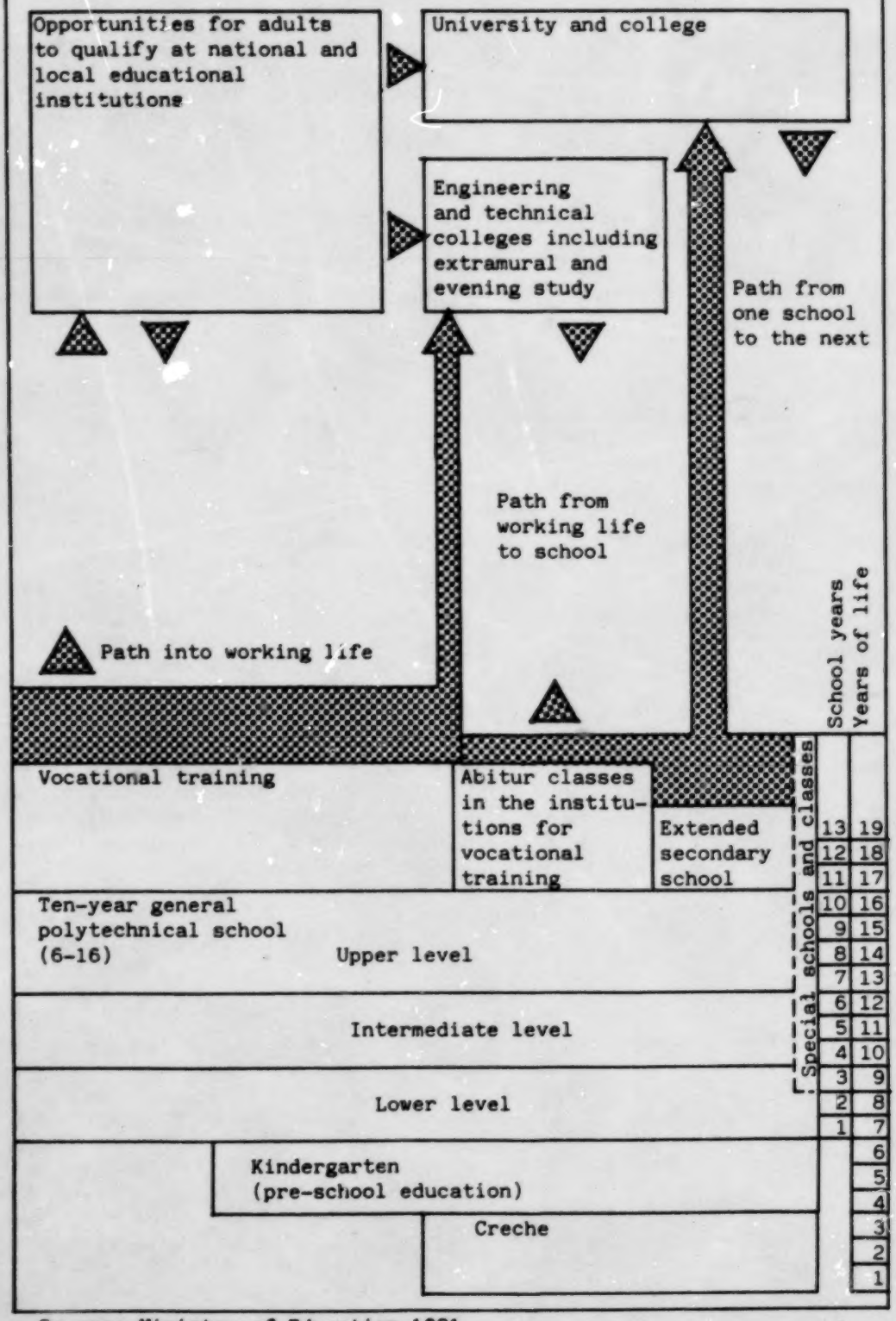
The GDR also has a number of special schools and special classes for a limited number of pupils who have shown exceptional proficiency in particular areas. Their aim is to encourage and develop talents in fields such as technology, mathematics, natural sciences, languages, fine arts and sport. These institutions meet the requirements of the curricula in all subjects, but make higher demands on the pupils in their special fields.

The various routes a young person can follow in his educational career are shown in the diagram on page 18.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

The principal task of vocational guidance is to enable young people to obtain the knowledge needed to make valid decisions for occupational training. The GDR plans over five-year periods the requirements in each occupation to achieve the necessary proportions of workers at various levels. At the same time, the needs and wishes of the individual are taken into account. Probably because young people receive vocational guidance and training thoughout their school lives, the two usually coincide.

STRUCTURAL DIAGRAM OF THE INTEGRATED SOCIALIST EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM



Source: Ministry of Education 1981

In 1979 more than 80 per cent of pupils entered their chosen profession upon their first application. There is no youth unemployment in the GDR.

Vocational guidance runs alongside work experience from grade 6 (age 12) on. Careers advice and guidance are provided at both county and district levels by the local department for vocational training and career guidance.

Careers guidance begins with class meetings and lessons given by teachers, counsellors and workers from various industries. These are often accompanied by slide-tape presentations on the economic structure of the county and the sorts of jobs people there have. In grades 7-10 each pupil completes a form stating his first and second choices of occupations. These are passed by the class teacher, with comments on the pupil's character, behaviour, interests and abilities, to the county department which assesses and matches the stated preferences against the objectives which the county has been allocated as their part of the national five-year plan.

Careers counsellors explain the need for one occupation rather than another, popularise less highly regarded or newly required occupations, and demonstrate the hard reality of the work of, say, a motor mechanic as opposed to the idea of its usefulness for maintaining a personal car. This guidance is supported by groups such as the FDJ who mount wall displays with titles such as, 'The job I want and reality'.

Vocational guidance is concerned with advising, recommending and directing interests and inclinations towards the occupations which need workers. The aim of counselling is to avoid the costly and personally dissatisfying career detours which result from ill-advised or inappropriate choices.

About four per cent of pupils in grade 8 (age 14) leave their secondary school and go into semi-skilled training programmes as apprentices, but have compulsory continuing education until they reach 18.

While in grade 9, the large majority of children receive information on vacancies in their county which includes lists of available jobs; where and what the requirements are; and how, where and when to apply. Also in grade 9, pupils are tested physically for their aptitudes and interviewed individually.

In December of their 10th school year, pupils apply for the occupational training they have selected for the following September. Their applications include comments from the school head. If the firm accepts them, the school and county careers department are notified. If an applicant is unsuccessful the pupil

(and usually his parents) are invited to discuss options with the careers service. Only about one per cent fail to get training contracts and they are guided into semi-skilled occupations or, in special circumstances, passed on to the social services department for action.

Of the 20 per cent who fail to get their first choice occupation, 14 per cent fail for medical reasons, so that only about six per cent have to take a second choice occupation.

The guidance service is supported by many other groups. In each school at least one teacher is a trained vocational guidance counsellor and there is usually one counsellor in each large factory. Parents and parents' organisations, the FDJ, trade unions and womens' organisations all support the planned process. Children, from the age of 11 onwards, are thus directed and counselled from many directions about their future occupations within the needs of a planned economy.

ORGANISATION OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Vocational guidiance is under the central direction of the State Secretariat for Vocational Training but operates largely at county and district levels. Each county has a senior official responsible, with an area education officer to oversee activities in each district.

Each county has several career centres with a qualified, full time staff. There are 222 such centres throughout the GDR. These centres contain up-to-date information, interview rooms, information displays and are open from 9.00 a.m. to 7.00 p.m. on at least three days each week.

They are staffed by qualified teachers with experience in vocational guidance who have attended a two-year special full time programme at Dresden Technical University. There are compulsory staff development programmes in psychology, sociology, job profiling, rehabilitation of handicapped people, etc. Staff visit schools, give talks and lessons, interview children and parents, and maintain close liaison with employers. Mentally and physically handicapped people come within the scope of the service as far as is possible.

In **Bezirk** (county) Dresden, as an example, the vocational guidance programme copes with a population of more than two million from which 18,000 apprentices are trained in 100 **Betriebsschulen** in 190 basic trades. There are 128 **Oberschulen** with 34,500 pupils in grades 6-10; each year some 6,500 school leavers have to be placed. In 1980 only nine pupils were unplaced. The annual budget from the state is 120 million DM and a similar amount comes from industry.

The thoroughness, efficiency and total integration of school, work experience, industry and the vocational guidance system provide a powerful force not only in helping to meet future manpower requirements, but also in achieving the concept of an integrated educational system.

APPRENTICE TRAINING

By the age of 16 young people in the GDR have broad, basic skills in handling simple tools, machines and materials, together with considerable experience in and understanding of production lines. As a result of the work of the vocational guidance service, most of them will have selected their future training in one of 316 occupations.

Three options are open to 15 year olds:

(a) A two or one and one-half year apprentice training course to become a **Facharbeiter** (skilled worker), a qualification also entitling entry to a technical college (**Fachschule**).

(b) A three-year combined academic and technical apprentice course leading to **Facharbeiter mit Arbitur**, the Abitur entitling entry into University.

(c) A two-year academic course leading to the Abitur in the Erweiterte Oberschule and then directly into higher education.

Those entering apprenticeships have two choices of institutions to attend. Many large companies establish **Betriebsschulen** on a group basis (sometimes called **Berufsbetriebsschulen**). Seventy per cent of all apprentices attend these institutions, the remaining 30 per cent attend either special, central schools for rare trades, or community vocational schools set up by local authorities. Betriebsschulen belong to a company or a combination of companies (**Kombinat**). The only equivalent in the UK is the Rolls Royce Technical College in Bristol.

Costs of teaching staff, polytechnic work centres and hostels are paid by State budgets; industry provides the rest. Community vocational schools generally cater for the smaller, handicraft type of occupations which cannot afford to provide a vocational training school of their own. Theoretical training is often carried out in block sessions, the practical work undertaken by apprentices in their individual workshops. Small concerns sometimes contract with **Kombinat** to train their apprentices.

The first year of training usually consists of a basic course in that occupation in theoretical classroom sessions alternating with practical workshop sessions using machines and equipment which are on the main production line. In the second year there is a gradual

introduction to the production line. During the first six months of the second year apprentices are rotated around various positions, to avoid premature specialisation, under the guidance of a **Lehrmeister** (skilled, teacher trained foreman) in a ratio of 15:1. During the last six months the apprentice spends most of his time in the position for which he is contracted, under the guidance of a **Lehrfacharbeiter** (skilled, teacher trained worker) in ratios of about 30:1 but still under the overall supervision of a Lehrmeister.

Assessment is continuous in the two areas of theory and practice. A standard grading system on a 1 - 5 scale is employed throughout the GDR (1 = Very good, 2 = Good, 3 = Satisfactory, 4 = Sufficient/Acceptable, and 5 = Unacceptable). Examinations and practical tests are set formally at the completion of the number of hours set for each subject and skill required. Apprentices are assessed in terms of quality and quantity of production (at the end of training they should have achieved the standards of all skilled workers), methods and organisation of work, discipline, and attitude. If any examination, or part of it, is failed it may be resat within six months. Failure results in being put into the line but doing less skilled work. The apprentice may then continue his training through the adult education provisions in the factory.

Each successful completion increases pay until, at the end of the training, pay is that of a skilled worker. Each apprentice gets two certificates: one showing his trade, the other giving more details, including gradings. Apprentices are contributing to production throughout training. Practical training is always closely related to the final product.

If at any time during the apprenticeship a trainee feels he would be better in some other occupation he or she may negotiate with the concern and the trade unions to change, but in a closely allied group of occupations so that the basic training is not wasted.

Examples of apprentice training are included in Coombe Lodge Information Bank Paper Number 1649, **Work experience and vocational education in the German Democratic Republic** (1981) by Derek Marsh.

III : The training of teachers in the German Democratic Republic

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Responsibility for the training of teachers in the GDR rests with the Ministry for General Education. This includes the preparation of teachers for work in kindergarten, the ten-year general polytechnical schools and the extended secondary schools.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

Following the end of World War II it became an aim of the new rulers of what is now the GDR to transform education from 'an instrument of imperialist rule' into 'a weapon for the anti-imperialist struggle'. This had important implications for teacher education. Of the 40,000 qualified teachers living in Eastern Germany in 1945, more than 80 per cent had been active in the Nazi party or one of its organisations. Most were undesirable as teachers in the new regime.

An emergency training scheme was introduced to recruit a force of **Neulehrer** (new teachers) whose members had backgrounds which were politically acceptable. By 1947 some 40,000 had been enrolled, most of whom had undergone an eight-month course of training. These new teachers worked very hard for as well as their professional duties they had to spend a great deal of time improving their knowledge. Subsequently the majority followed correspondence courses and many undertook further study at a college of education. A number of those who entered teaching in this way now hold key positions in teacher education.

Teachers, it is acknowledged, have an active part to play in helping to build a socialist society. The 12th of June is Teachers' Day in the GDR and outstanding teachers are rewarded with titles, promotion and extra pay.

DIFFERENT TYPES OF TRAINING

1. Kindergarten teachers

   The training of teachers for the kindergarten takes place in schools of education, one of which exists in each of the 15 counties. The students, who are recruited from girls who have completed ten years at a general polytechnical school, undergo three years of training to equip them for looking after three to six year olds.

2. Teachers in children's homes

People working in homes for orphans or children who are separated from their families follow three-year courses at special teacher training institutes.

3. Primary teachers

Although primary and secondary teachers work in the same institutions (viz. ten-year general polytechnical schools), a clear distinction is made between the way they are trained.

Teachers for grades 1 to 4 are trained at teacher training institutes by means of four-year courses. As with intending kindergarten teachers, applicants are required to have completed their secondary education. All study German and mathematics and a third subject from music, handicraft, drawing, physical education and gardening. In addition the course includes theory of education (educational psychology, pedagogics and methodology), Marxism-Leninism, and some speech training, health education and Russian. Work in schools occurs throughout the four years which are divided into semesters, and culminates in a period of 15 weeks in the classroom in the seventh semester.

4. Secondary teachers

The training of teachers who will teach grades 5 to 10 in the ten-year general polytechnical school and grades 11 and 12 in the extended secondary school takes place in university departments or advanced colleges of education in five-year courses. The basic entry qualification is a pass in the Abitur (equivalent to 'A' level) which normally implies the successful completion of 12 years of schooling or three years of vocational training plus preparation for the Abitur examination. Students are required to study two main teaching subjects - one for four years, the other for two. Common pairings are German and history, biology and chemistry, mathematics and physics. A small number of subjects, such as music, physical education and electrical engineering are dealt with separately in other institutions. All intending secondary teachers study Marxism-Leninism, educational psychology, the methodology of their chosen subjects and have a substantial amount of practical work in schools which concludes with a 27-week period in the fifth year.

PEDAGOGIC UNIVERSITIES

The majority of secondary teachers in the GDR are trained at pedagogic universities (i.e. advanced colleges of education). These institutions not only produce graduate teachers for work in the general polytechnical schools, but academics for other higher educational establishments, including the pedagogic universities themselves.

The pedagogic university at Erfurt, which has existed as a graduate teacher training institute since 1953 and is typical of such establishments, has about 2,000 students. It has four main departments - Social Science, Educational Sciences, Natural Sciences and Polytechnical Education - which are expected to regulate their student numbers in accordance with state planning requirements. As in Britain there is some difficulty in recruiting enough students for the areas of mathematics and physics. Erfurt has been experimenting with an accelerated course for 10th grade leavers who can substitute a special one-year foundation course for the two years in grades 11 and 12, before entering the university.

The four-year course at a pedagogic university with its specialist subject training, educational studies and work in schools bears a number of similarities with a BEd. course in Britain. However, students in the GDR have a weekly programme of class contact which is heavier than the norm in British universities or colleges. In Year 1, for example, students in a pedagogic university are exposed to 30 or more periods of teaching per week (i.e. 20+ hours) and this is only likely to reduce to about 25 periods later in the course. There also appears to be less self-directed work than in Britain, though this may reflect German tradition as much as it does a Communist education system. Students undertake a thesis in a relevant area of education and are expected, from time to time, to join staff in their research activities.

Teacher educators in Britain and the GDR share similar concerns. Discussions with staff at Erfurt disclose that, like their British counterparts, they are constantly seeking to relate theory and practice in a more meaningful way for their students.

Textbooks for use in schools are centrally produced in the GDR. Thus, any history teacher wishing to deal with the English Bill of Rights of 1689 would refer the class to History Textbook 7, p.34, or a geography teacher discussing the social problems of Cuba to Geography Textbook 8, p.173. Such common texts have implications for the teacher educators at establishments like Erfurt, for it means that they can and do give students very specific guidance on how a particular topic should be taught.

Students who successfully complete the course are guaranteed a teaching post. The ultimate placement follows discussions with the student, his tutors, family and the authorities, and will reflect the needs of the national and local educational plans. Most students get a post in their home region.

IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The in-service training of all teachers in the schools and kindergarten of the GDR is planned from the Central Institute for the Further Training of Teachers and Educators at Lugwigsfelde. During a specified five-year period each teacher in the country is

obliged to carry out a given number of hours of training. About 40 per cent of the provision relates to didactics, pedagogy and philosophy, the rest to work in the various school subjects and their appropriate methodologies.

The Central Institute which, like the pedagogic universities and other training establishments, has considerable residential facilities, mounts a number of short courses at Lugwigsfelde. The majority of one and two week courses, however, are organised on a decentralised basis and take place in district and country towns, though the tutors who run them will probably have been trained or briefed by the Institute. Some courses are provided at special centres such as those at Weimar for music and literature, and at Buchenwald for history.

IV : The administration of higher education in the German Democratic Republic

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The administrative process in socialist countries differs in some respects from that in the West and little has been written about it. The difficulty lies in unravelling the various strands in the power structure. The countries of Eastern Europe each have a dominant political party whose membership is organised at the place of work. They have trade unions with a high level of legally guaranteed rights and duties, and they have in general a centrally planned economy including a man-power policy The purpose of this article is to give a descriptive account of the administration of higher education in the GDR, both nationally and institutionally. An attempt is also made to show how power is distributed within this system.

BACKGROUND

In 1945 the Soviet zone inherited 16 institutions of higher education from pre-war Germany, together with academic staff who had been strongly influenced by and involved in Nazi ideology. The worst of the latter were dismissed and new forces brought in; the extensively damaged buildings were repaired where possible, and students gradually enrolled. From the early days of the formation of the GDR (1949) there has been an emphasis on equal opportunity for all to enter university and special arrangements were made for a number of years to enable less educated children of workers and peasants to enter academic study.

The number of institutions grew to over 50 as the demand for graduate manpower increased - especially in science and technology which were raised publicly to a higher level than other disciplines. New laws were introduced to regulate and control the institutions. While the school structure was entirely rebuilt, no such far reaching changes were made in higher education. The traditional German university structure has remained, with the influence of a new political system superimposed upon it.

THE INSTITUTIONS

The university level institutions (**Hochschulen**) are 54 in number. Of these six are universities and one is a technological university. Eight are **Technische Hochschulen** - university level institutions with a narrow range of work in technology; ten are **Ingenieurhochschulen** - similar but with a specially close relationship with industry; three are medical colleges (not to be

confused with the medical faculties of the universities); and there is one college of economics (business studies). These 29 constitute the sector under the direct control of the Ministry of Higher Education. To these must be added the 11 art colleges of university level (including drama and music) belonging to the Ministry of Culture, two agricultural colleges under the Ministry of Agriculture, and nine teachers' training colleges of the Ministry of Education. Together with one each for law, sport and commerce, this makes up the 54. Entrance to all is by means of the **Abitur**.

There are also military academies and, outside the state system, a trade union college and the college of the Socialist Unity Party (SED).

At a lower level there are about 200 technical colleges (**Fachschulen** and **Ingenieurschulen**). These cover what we call higher specialised monotechnics (the Hochschulen are also highly specialised though not sufficiently so to belong in all cases to a single ministry). The Fachschulen can be divided roughly into two groups:

(1) The engineering, science and economics colleges which cover all technological fields and produce technicians of about HND standard and

(2) Colleges which train primary school teachers, nursery nurses, librarians, and provide the non-degree level courses in the arts.

Entrance qualifications to these is normally by leaving certificate of the vocational school, though some art colleges recruit at below school leaving age. Almost all these colleges belong to the ministries whose industries they serve.

NATIONAL CONTROL

The Council of Ministers has collective responsibility for Government policy and its execution within general guide-lines laid down by parliament. It includes three ministers with education briefs - the Minister of Education responsible for schools and teacher training, the Minister for Higher Education, and a minister with responsibility for vocational education presiding over a smaller department (**Staatssekretariat**). There are considerable overlaps in their responsibilities.

Although the Ministry of Higher Education has only 29 institutions under its direct control, it is responsible for the general direction and policy of all higher education wherever carried out. It issues orders and regulations for the control of the number of students, the curriculum, the appointment of teachers (it appoints

these directly) and so on. On the other hand it does not finance colleges other than its own. The ministries which have responsibility for Hochschulen and Fachschulen have to finance these out of their own funds.

There has been some changing of minds about the allocation of colleges to ministries. But industrial needs are met more quickly and effectively by a ministry responsible for the given industry. For example, the construction industry needed a large increase in building technicians, and put up 15 Ingenieurschulen in a short time. An education ministry would take much longer consulting various interests and balancing the needs of one industry against another.

Teacher training for primary schools is carried out in colleges set up by and controlled by the Ministry of Education. On the other hand they are within the Fachschulsystem and their teachers are appointed by the Ministry of Higher Education. Teachers for higher ages are university trained, directly under the Ministry of Higher Education, but to a syllabus which has the approval of the Ministry of Education.

This divided responsibility has a number of advantages:

(i) The needs of the various sectors of the economy are fed directly to the individual colleges,

(ii) Since every student finishes his study with a project of some kind, these can be part of the research and development plans of the industry, and

(iii) The financial advantage, in rapid injection of capital, has already been mentioned. Disadvantages include the cumbersome amount of consultative machinery that must be set up in order to ensure co-ordination. The need for co-ordination is unquestioned - both within the system and with industry.

THE MACHINERY

The Minister of Higher Education has six deputy ministers. The first of these acts as deputy proper, and the other five have departmental responsibilities - social sciences, technology, scientific research, economics, and international relations. The Ministry is not large. On the other hand it has a large consultative apparatus.

The Council for Higher Education has a membership of about 150. It includes the rectors of the universities, representatives of the academic staffs and students, and trade union and youth organisations. Representatives of other ministries may also attend. This body advises the Minister on policy. There are

similar boards (usually about 60 strong) for each main subject, and a few cross-disciplinary. There is another committee (**Collegium**) composed of the heads of departments at the Ministry and leading scientists from the institutions. This small body can arrange conferences or high level meetings at short notice. It may require reports from individual rectors. It tends to meet about once a fortnight, but with varying composition, according to the agenda. the members of the Collegium are appointed, not elected.

Apart from these bodies the Minister has weekly meetings with his heads of department, four-weekly with the rectors, and yearly with all rectors (i.e. not only those of his own institutions).

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION

The colleges differ greatly in size and range of work but not in general structure. Overall control is in the hands of the Minister. He appoints the senior administrators, down to heads of faculties (or, rather, **Sektionen**, since faculties were merged into larger Sektionen). This group of people is known as the **staatliche Leitung** or state appointed leadership, and has executive powers. Each individual member has a clearly defined area of responsibility and is fully accountable. Public accountability is a new concept in German higher education.

In accordance with older German custom, all the administrators below the ministry level are amateurs - on the assumption that knowledge of their subject is highly relevant to success. They are therefore academics who are temporarily appointed to their posts, and are not expected to remain there for more than a few years.

In charge of each college of higher education is a **Rektor**. He will have a number of deputies (**Prorektor**). At the Humboldt University in Berlin there is one for social science, one for education and training, one for science and technology, and one for medicine. The latter is also head of the medical faculty. There are also **Direktors**, responsible for the administrative work - planning, budgetting, personnel, etc.

A college will have a Council on which sit representatives of the academic and non-academic staff. This meets annually to receive a report and approve the plan for the coming year. The Academic Board consists of elected teachers, professors, students, and one or two administrators (in Berlin it has 120 members, of whom about 10 are non-academic). This body chooses the Rektor and other senior members of staff (subject to the approval of the Minister), awards doctorates and the 'facultas docendi' or right to teach. It deliberates on all academic matters. It makes proposals for new teaching staff (subject to ministerial appointment). The board has an executive committee (**Senat**) consisting of leading academics. It is important to note that academic staff are constrained by Ministry policy, Council policy, and the decisions of the Academic

Board. In this respect the change is substantial from pre-war when heads of department had no constraints in academic matters. The curriculum is also nationally laid down. Further, there is an obligation on staff to undergo in-service training in pedagogy.

The main academic unit of the university is the **Sektion**. Its head (Direktor) is appointed by the Rektor after recommendation by the Sektion. He has two deputies and an advisory council. The latter has an executive committee (**Rat der Sektion**), consisting of all the professors, some senior staff, some technicians and students. Within the Sektion there will be subject departments (**Bereiche**). Here meetings of the whole team are normal.

The above structure holds for Hochschulen and Fachschulen also.

Since the staatliche Leitung has executive powers it follows that academic boards and other bodies are advisory. Their role is to help the executive make decisions. It is, however, part of the function of the academic board to advise the Minister on the appointment of the executives. The relationship is therefore more complex. All appointments are for one year only, and subject to confirmation or replacement at each annual meeting. Another consequence of the executive character of the Rektor's post is that this becomes a much more powerful role than was the case in the old Germany.

This system of inter-relations and temporary occupation of senior positions allows direct access to all levels by everyone. There is no question of having to raise an issue with higher authority through one's immediate superior since management positions and academic grade are not interlinked. All are **colleagues**, and there are few differences in grading (title, with its accompanying pay scale). One has the option of taking the issue up through a colleague who is the local trade union representative, through the colleague who is the Party official or spokesman, or through the colleague who is occupying a senior post. Circumstances, personalities, and the issue determine which route is favoured. Should someone not get satisfaction over a complaint he will still have open to him the ultimate weapon of a formal written complaint - this must by law be answered within two weeks. A marked change from pre-war Germany and the Federal Republic is the personal responsibility of all teaching staff for the students and their progress.

TRADE UNION

There is one trade union for all employees in an industry in the GDR. There are no craft or sectional unions. In the case of the higher education sector the appropriate union is the **Gewerkschaft Wissenschaft**. Membership is not compulsory, though it is very high among both academic and non-academic staff. Each college has a trade union committee composed of 15-20 elected members (by secret

ballot every two years). One of these is full time in larger establishments. This body has great influence over many aspects of the conditions of work; it negotiates with the management. There is strong legal backing for the trade union and the management would be prosecuted for altering working conditions without prior written agreement of the union. Each small department or section has its own secretary, social secretary, etc. Each larger department, or group of smaller ones, also has officials for dealing with wages and conditions. These are elected at regular intervals, often somewhat informally.

Trade unionists from the college will inevitably be drawn into wider activities, such as allocation of members to holidays - most resorts and facilities are in the hands of unions - and dealing with minor offenders (under GDR law the courts prefer minor offences to be dealt with by the trade union organisation rather than through the formal court machinery).

The college union branch will occasionally ask the Rektor to report on progress in the work of the colleges. At the various meetings of members the main topic of discussion tends to be the fulfilment of the college plans. This implies that the trade union does not see itself as an opposition to the management, but as partner - one whose job it is to look after the welfare of the employees. This role is often interpreted in the West as implying that the unions are not 'free'. But in a society in which there are shared values the question does not have the same meaning. Managers who forget to pay attention to the trade union often end up in trouble (perhaps in court), and the trade union can get a voice in almost all affairs of the institution.

YOUTH

Students are organised in the Free German Youth, FDJ. This is an organisation with a dual purpose in the GDR. It is both the youth organisation associated with the SED and a students' union. It has the right to representation on all committees and councils, direct access to management, and the duty of maintaining discipline and a sense of purpose among the students. It is also closely concerned with their political development. Those in higher management positions thus find themselves having to deal almost daily with the problems brought to them by the FDJ representatives or having to use the FDJ to help rally student support for some project that they want successfully concluded.

Each seminar group on a course has an FDJ leader. He will be elected by his fellow students (and is subject to instant recall). He is often one of the most successful, or at least one of the more mature students. The average student spends about two hours per week on FDJ business. Almost all students are members.

THE SED

The other strand in the organisational thread is the SED itself. Although there are five political parties in the GDR the SED is by far the largest and most influential. The number of seats it occupies in parliament is restricted in the interests of unity, but it claims a membership of 1.8m. Unlike the other parties it is organised on the basis of work place rather than home address. It was formed by the amalgamation of the old social democratic and communist parties and developed very much along communist lines. It has a highly centralised leadership - decisions taken by majority votes are binding on all, though everyone has the right to take part in formulating policy. This means that if the party at a college has taken certain decisions about a sphere of work this decision is binding on all members - including the Rektor, the office cleaner and the student. Membership of the party is scattered over all levels of work; a leading official may occupy a relatively low position in the college hierarchy. Yet his leadership, based on political objectives, is binding on those higher up.

Within each institution, factory, office, etc., in the GDR the same process is at work and two different leaderships are in force. There is, of course, a tendency for the two to coalesce to some extent and there are probably no Rektors who are not members of the party. Anyone in an executive position in the GDR has to operate in this complex power structure.

A further difference from British practice is that there is a high level of delegation of responsibilities to junior staff and even students. Help is sought from all in running the affairs of the department or institution. One consequence of this is that outspoken criticism cannot be avoided, and there is no occasion for saying 'mind your own business' when everything is publicly made everyone's business. There is not the gap that we expect between a small active group and the majority of passive members of staff. The level of involvement is much higher and it is policy to raise it further.

Another feature is that all positions - in the trade unions, in the party, in the FDJ - are elected positions. It follows that those who hold them have to depend on the votes of their colleagues for re-appointment each year or two. They can at any time be deposed by resolution at a full meeting (i.e. they are subject to recall) - though this does not appear to apply to executive positions in the staatliche Leitung. Further, officials cannot carry out their business if they do not have the support of the members they are supposed to represent. There is not the protection for an official once he is elected that there is in Britain. There will, of course, be party guidance on whom to elect, but (a) a substantial number of those affected are members and take part in the selection and (b) the guidance is based on the support already shown for the person.

There is almost no way in which college planning and decision-making can take place behind closed doors. Too many organisations and individuals are involved. It follows that every decision taken in a college has a trade union aspect (if relevant), a political aspect (both SED and FDJ), and a managerial aspect. The interweaving of these has produced a very complex administrative machine.

Inevitably the complexity of the structure leads to weaknesses. Among these is inefficiency in disseminating information - often the cause of friction - and too high a proportion of top academics involved. Lower level lecturers could presumably be given even more responsible positions and professors fewer. Professors still have great power, as in the old Germany, and academic snobbery has not disappeared. But the changes which have taken place make the administrative procedure substantially different from that in the West.

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V : Two ideologies: the politics of vocational training

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Five months after visiting the German Democratic Republic (GDR) to look at education and training, I joined a working group which visited the Federal Republic of Germany (FRG) to study its foundation year training for engineering apprentices. These visits gave me the opportunity to draw some broad comparisons between the two processes, both of which stem from a common tradition of craftsman and master craftsman training in which schools and industry co-operate in a 'dual system' of apprentice training.

The two systems differ for a number of reasons, principally because of:

1. The contrasting socio-political system of Marxist-Leninist socialism in the GDR on the one hand and the federal, parliamentary democracy of the FRG on the other;

2. The unified approach to vocational training in the GDR with its centralised bureaucracy of the state, the SED political party and the FDJ youth movement, as compared with the distinct variance of opinions within the FRG as represented by employers, Chambers of Industry and Commerce, trades unions, the states and the federal government.

The integrated socialist educational philosophy and practice as expressed in the GDR's approach to vocational guidance and training contrasts starkly with the complex system of the FRG. The latter is dominated by market forces and a contest for power to determine the why, what and how of apprentice training. The problem of how best to meet the state's economic needs by providing training for young people has been solved more radically by the GDR.

This paper does not attempt to describe the education and training system of the FRG. This is done fully in other Coombe Lodge publications, most recently in **Vocational education and training in the Federal Republic of Germany** (Russell 1983). It is suggested that this paper be read in conjunction with that report.

ROLES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT AND THE LANDER

Unlike the GDR, the FRG has no strong, central agency exercising power at national level. The FRG is made up of 11 autonomous states (**Länder**) whose educational autonomy is reflected in their variations to the basic education system. For example, only three

states have a compulsory tenth year of schooling. The federal government, however, has ultimate responsibility for all vocational training outside the schools.

Some co-ordination is obviously essential and this was attempted by the Vocational Training Act of 1969 which standarised statutory provision for all states. It applies to training throughout industry, agriculture, the civil service and professions.

Various bodies have been set up in attempts to co-ordinate provision. They have had varying degrees of success. Some, but not all, are statutory. These central authorities are fully described in **Vocational education and training in the Federal Republic of Germany.**

The federal organisation of the FRG means that most decisions are the result of compromise. This is true in areas such as the structure of secondary schooling and details of the curriculum in the common foundation year and apprentice training in both school-based and co-operative forms with industry. Switches in political power between CDU and SPD, at both federal and state levels, alter the emphasis placed on the choices offered to young people.

The federal government is responsible for training directives which the states translate into vocational school curricula as they wish. Since the federal government governs the industrial curriculum and the states govern the school curriculum, problems of integration are numerous at local level. There is suspicion between executives at local level and federal civil servants. For example, measures introduced by the federal government to meet the social and political problems of high youth unemployment are not seen in the same light by all Länder.

Recognition of the need for change is demonstrated by the FRG's restructuring of basic vocational training, further training and the vocational preparation element within the general secondary system. KMK (the non-statutory standing conference of state education ministers) is trying to establish a three-level structure to cope with new demands, changes in demography and the need to produce suitably qualified workers capable of adapting to future growth and change.

Ten per cent of young people entering the FRG labour market are unskilled. The FRG view is that it is possible to reduce this percentage only by compulsory schooling and training. This view is shared by the GDR which provides systematic vocational preparation and training from the age of 13. Hence both countries have, in reality, compulsory education to the ages of 19 or 20 for 90-95 per cent of young people.

KMK is aware that total co-ordination is impossible in a federal system. This gap is not helped by the separateness of various executive and policy-making authorities. The two sides of the dual system - school and industry - are thus often out of step.

This is in marked contrast to the GDR where training regulations apply to all educational institutions since there is no distinction between education and training.

The FRG - unlike the GDR - has no national economic and labour plan, so it is impossible to forecast future demands of the labour market. Demographic changes thus affect the FRG more strongly than the GDR. The FRG has hit the problem of the dysfunctional cycle of the labour market in a capitalist system.

Education and training are issues of political contention in the FRG. Recent political changes will bring new pressures on existing vocational training. Not everyone in KMK believes the role of industry in training has been all that successful as employers' purposes sometimes appear to be at odds with those of the federal government.

CHAMBERS OF INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE

Chambers of Industry and Commerce and Chambers of Crafts are defined by the 1969 Vocational Training Act as the competent bodies charged with the principal tasks of determining the suitability of firms to enter into contracts and approving (or amending) their terms, supervising training programmes and examining apprentices at the completion of training. Membership of the Chambers is compulsory for all enterprises.

The GDR has nothing comparable to the FRG's Chambers. Because the state owns the means of production there is no need for them.

The training functions of the local Chambers are to advise, administer and examine. The Chambers, through their vocational training committees and examining boards, set the final practical, written and oral tests and certify occupational qualifications - such as craftsman or clerk. The Chambers are subject to federal law and implement statutory regulations governing the practical implementation of vocational training at local level.

Out-of-school training in the dual system is in the hands of employers, so they can decide whether they will provide training, in which trades and how many young people they will train. Employers' views about the previous form of schooling, and the standards of attainment required affect the admission tests they set for would-be apprentices. As a result less able young people frequently find it difficult to obtain a training place.

The Chambers express the broad conservative views of a capitalist free market economy which is biased towards the needs of the employer. This view reinforces the traditional dichotomy between education (theoretical) and training (practical) which the GDR has taken pains to end. Employers in the FRG believe schools can only provide knowledge and not the skills and experience of work the employer wants. The FRG secondary school subject **Arbeitslehre** (learning about work) is a very pale shadow of the work experience provided in GDR schools.

The Chambers recognise the current need to train a surplus of apprentices and that vocational training ought not to be governed solely by economic trends of labour supply and demand. Skills are not lost: they go into the general pool of skilled labour of which a shortage is predicted by the end of the 1980s. Employers, together with the federal government, have invested considerable funds in training facilities which demonstrate the commitment to training - whether for pragmatic, social or political reasons.

TRADE UNIONS

Trade unions in the FRG, it is claimed, are the pillars of social stability. They are party-politically and denominationally neutral. Their free collective bargaining roles are as a contract partner with employers. Unions are organised on an industry-wide basis - one industry, one union. They are therefore large. There are no forced closed shops. Union members have the right to strike and employers have the right to lock out.

Trade union power is relatively weak. Within what the FRG calls a 'socially responsible market economy', political parties, unions and employers are committed to social partnership - a view which has helped to stabilise the economy. Unions give positive support to changes in vocational training with no feeling of threat.

In the GDR, on the other hand, unions are part of the state and have no practical power independent of the state. They are primarily welfare organisations but have representation in education at all levels.

SUMMARY: A BROAD COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO COUNTRIES

The common, traditional element of a legislative framework in both countries has developed differently. Both have been concerned with developing recognised trades, crafts and professions (316 in the GDR, 460 in the FRG), with setting, regulating and developing training curricula, vocational guidance and financing.

The GDR enacted legislation in 1965 to establish a single, cohesive system which combines all types, streams and levels of education to be closely adapted to the needs of real life and to prepare students for work. The intention of this Act was further strengthened in 1968 and 1974, in addition to those parts of the Constitution which refer to labour, youth, work, education and individual rights and duties.

The GDR has a framework which has national impact within five-year cycles of central and regional economic planning. Both countries require a skilled workforce. The GDR can direct young people into occupations where the need is greatest and uses its vocational guidance service to do so. This is partly because of the political situation and partly because there is a shortage of people to do all the jobs available.

The FRG cannot force firms to train nor young people to take up apprenticeships. Manpower calculations are based on the needs of individual firms. There are those in the FRG who are voicing the need to guarantee, as in the GDR, people a job. The main federal government response has been to make funds available to encourage training as an alternative to unemployment.

The pedagogical (and political) basis for the GDR's policy of the integration of theory and practice in education is probably the greatest difference between the two systems. The lack of any such integration (or at times, even co-operation) between the two parts of the FRG's dual system, and the lack of any powerful central authority, lead to an uneasy symbiosis. It also leads to the relative lack of success of vocational guidance in the FRG, though it must be said that the service is far in advance of that in most EEC countries.

While the GDR is technologically a long way behind the FRG, it demonstrates a greater awareness of the impact, for example, on computer-based processes than was apparent in the FRG. The fewer recognised occupations requiring training are more easily adaptable to change than those in the FRG. As far as training for flexibility and transfer of skills is concerned, the GDR - unlike the FRG - has come to grips with the problems of basic vocational training. This begins in the eighth grade of the Polytechnische Oberschulen and is systematically developed until specialisation begins in the third year of apprentice training. It thus provides five or six years of basic skills training transferable across occupations. In the FRG there seemed to be no common agreement about basic, transferable training. The FRG operates in the world market, competing by quality, so its vocational training is dominated by job-specific requirements. The GDR, on the other hand, wishing to mitigate the effects of the cycles of the world market, is more concerned with awareness, responsibility, attitudes and general skills rather than with the narrow, need-to-know basis required by FRG employers.

It is easier for GDR apprentices to switch from one occupation to another during training. If he moves from one part of the country to another the GDR apprentice will find the same range of options offered in training schools.

Equality of opportunity for women and girls in the GDR is much greater than in the FRG. Women in the Federal Republic do not even enjoy the equality of opportunity legislated for in the UK. The GDR has, since 1949,, emphasised the equal status of men and women and discriminated in helping women in education and work. Nearly 90 per cent of women of working age are at work or in training. They provide 51.5 per cent of the total work force.

The centralised comprehensive GDR system, which begins in the secondary school and develops systematically through apprenticeship and further education, seems to offer a more pragmatic, problem-solving process than the uneasy symbiosis found in the FRG. Each country, within its own economic and political terms, has attempted to develop the training methods needed to suit its national needs. Centralists will view the GDR system with satisfaction.

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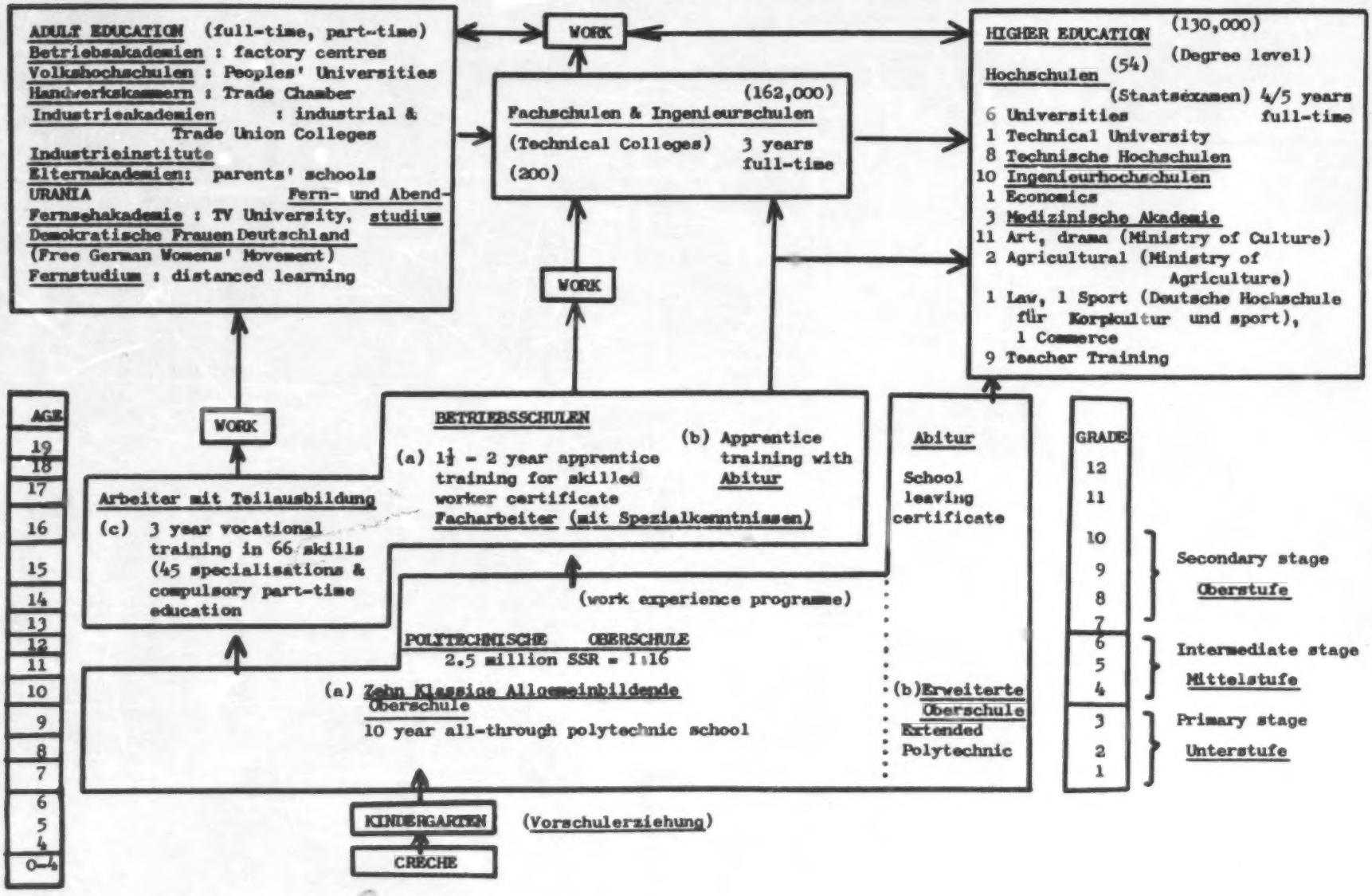
Appendix A

THE EDUCATION AND TRAINING SYSTEMS OF THE GERMAN DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC



Appendix B

GLOSSARY OF GDR EDUCATIONAL TERMS

Abitur
Entry qualification for higher education

Abteilung Berufsbildung und Berufsberatung
Department of vocational training and career guidance

Abteilung fur Weiterbildung
Department of further education

Akademie
Higher education institution

Arbeitsauftrag
Pupil's task book and report used in work experience

Arbeiter mit Teilausbildung
Three-year, part time vocational school

Ausbildung
Education and training

Bereiche
Subject departments

Berufsberatungszentrum
Vocational guidance centres

Berufsbetriebsschulen
Appentice training school organised by a groups of companies

Berufsbilder
Instruction sheets used for vocational guidance

Berufsbildung
Vocational education and training

Betriebsakademie
Factory adult education centre

Betriebsschule
Apprentice training school

Bezirk
Local authority area, a county

Brigaden
Student groups

Demokratischen Frauen Deutschland
Free Women's Movement

Diplom-Ingenieur
Technician diploma

Diplompedagogi
Teacher's diploma

Elternakademie
Education centre for parents

Elternbeirat
Parents elected to serve on work experience school's committee of management

Erweiterte Oberschule
Extended secondary school

Erweiterte Polytechnische Oberschule
Extended polytechnic school (to Abitur level)

Facharbeiter
Skilled worker

Facharbeiter mit Abitur
Skilled worker with 'A' level equivalent

Fachschulen
General technical colleges

Fernsehakademie
TV University

Fernstudium
Distance learning

Freie Deutsche Jugend (FDJ)
Free German Youth Movement

Gewerkschaft Wissenschaft
Teaching trade union

Gruppenberater
Student group teacher leader

Hochschulen
Higher education institutions

Hohere Bildung
Higher education

Ingenieurhochschulen
Technical university with a close relationship with industry

Ingenieurschulen
Engineering technical colleges

Kindergarten
Nursery school

Kombinat
A combination of factories for production and training

Konzil
Academic Board

Kreis
Local authority district within a county

Lehrfacharbeiter
Skilled, teacher trained worker

Lehrmeister
Skilled,teacher trained foreman

Mittelstufe
Intermediate stage of secondary education, Grades 4,5 and 6

Oberschulen
School

Oberstufe
Grades 7-10 in secondary education

Polytecnische Oberschule
Polytechnic school

Polytechnischezentrum
Work experience centres in factories for polytechnic schools

Prorektor
Deputy to Rektor

Rat der Sektion
Executive committee to the advisory council in a university

Rektor
Person in charge of a higher education college

Sektion
Head of a large faculty

Senat
Executive committee of academics

Selbststudium
Self study programmes

Sozialistischen Einheitspartei Deutschlands (SED)
United Socialist Party of Germany

Staatliche Leitung
State appointed leadership

Staatsexamen
Degree level examinations

Staatssekretariat fur Berufsbildung
State Secretariat for Vocational Education

Technische Hochschulen
Technical universities

Unterstufe
Primary stage of education (grades 1,2 and 3)

Volksbildung
General education

Volkshochschulen
Peoples Universities

Zehn Klassige Allgemeinbildende Oberschulen
10-year, all-through polytechnic school

Zentral Institut fur Berufsbildung der DDR
Central Vocational Training Institute of the GDR

Zentren
Work experience centres

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